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ABSTRACT

This document describes the development of primary education in Tanzania. Part I deals with the period before independence from colonial rule and contains the following sections: (1) Informal Education, (2) Arab Education, (3) German Period, (4) British Period, (5) Types of Schools, (6) Scope of Curriculum, (7) Management of Schools, (8) Post Primary Education, (9) Public Primary School Enrollment, (10) Training of Teachers. Part II deals with the period after independence and is divided into the following sections: (1) Expansion of Primary Education, (2) Staffing and Training of Teachers, (3) Curriculum Changes, (4) Implementation of Curriculum, (5) Special Education. Part III includes discussion of education for self reliance in terms of origin, implementation, problems and remedies. Part IV deals with universal primary education 1977 and includes sections on school equipment and teachers. (MS)

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

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INTRODUCTION

Tanzania became an independent nation in 1961 after being ruled by two different colonial regimes, namely, the German and the British regimes. Before the coming of the Germans, however, the Arabs had already settled in most towns of the country, mostly along the coast from north to south in or about 970 A.D. The educational history of Tanzania may, therefore, conveniently be divided into five periods:

(a) The pre-colonial period - traditional education

(b) The early colonial period - Arab and German periods, 970 A.D. - , 1885-1918,

(c) The British period 1918-1961

(d) Early Independent period 1962-1966

(e) The Arusha Declaration period and after 1967.

PART ONE: BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

1. Informal Education

Even before the arrival of the Arabs the local people had their own system of education and the young people were given education according to needs. This traditional system of education aimed at inculcating in the children the values of hospitality, bravery, the dignity of labour, respect for elders and the communalism as opposed to individualism. This education was learned by both sexes through sex education and emphasis was put on the responsibilities of manhood and womanhood. It was also given through mass media such as tales, legends, whereby children learned history, geography, natural sciences, astronomy and many other subjects. These were accompanied by tending animals, games, work and dances. The education was, therefore, by the community for the community in the spirit of self-help. By using the mother tongue (tribal languages), the system had a democratic and egalitarian style, developing self-confidence and initiative.

There were, however, limits and negative aspects of this system, for the traditional education developed conservative attitudes and superstition. Special knowledge in medicine for example, was conservatively handed down to a member of the family chosen by an expert in whom he had confidence of secrecy, memory and interest. In this way,

in the event of the expert dying prematurely, valuable knowledge was not adequately passed on. The absence of writing in most cases obstructed the capacity for abstraction, generalization and capitalization of knowledge.

2. Arab Education

As pointed out above, Tanzania underwent two political stages of colonization. The Arabs who were not rulers went to Tanzania mainly to get slaves and ivory. Before they began to engage themselves in those activities, they settled along the coast where they taught Islam and converted people. As a result, they made the converted believe that education to women was not necessary and that the place for mature girls and married women was the kitchen, and they were not allowed to mix with people of the opposite sex, even during prayers. Young girls were, however, allowed to mix with boys during the learning of Arabic (Koran), when they were taught to read and write it. The lessons were being given either indoors or on verandahs of distinguished individuals. The converted were also made to believe that receiving other teachings besides Islamic was an unpardoned sin. These ideas were slowly spread far inland where the Arabs had much influence in big towns.

3. German Period

The Germans went to Tanzania as early as 1867 as missionaries, explorers, and as businessmen trading in elephant tusks and minerals, and later in 1885 they

colonized the territory under the pretext that they were protecting a number of chiefs who had signed treaties with them.

The missionaries, equally the Roman Catholics and Protestants, taught local people how to read and write so that they could read the bible. For this reason they began to set the local language (vernaculars) including Swahili, into script. The result of their influence was that the traditional culture was disrupted without being replaced by relevant values; the converted and the unconverted were divided into groups. The converted despised traditional culture and the unconverted psychologically suffered from an inferiority complex, especially towards the white man.

The first schools were identical with baptismal classes. Their curriculum was limited to religious instructions, gardening, domestic work and the rudiments of literacy and cultivation. Reading was centered around stories from the Old and New Testament. Compositions were autobiographical in the sense that they dwelt on the freeing from slavery, the liberation from the bonds of heathendom and the blessings of conversion. The church elders and the schools were placed in strategic positions to check the spread of Islam or any other denominations.

Unlike the British education, which aimed at imparting general knowledge and training the whole man to become a responsible citizen, the purpose of German educational system was to train selected Africans to understand and carry out

administrative orders.

Government plans for economic development drew attention to the quality of labour available. Farmers were against this alleging that educated Africans on European plantations were useless. They had to be persuaded that skilled natives were essential on farms and in business. Missionaries believed that education was ethical in nature; and that it produces moral maturity and that good workmanship stabilizes the personality. The missionaries taught first the crafts necessary for building, but when the buildings were over the trained people were jobless. Later missionaries trained Africans in trades that were likely to provide a source of livelihood. Again, due to lack of employment, missionaries became employers of a few of the trained people. Schloifer trained the uneducated to man gold and salt mine machines. They did a fantastic job. In Dar-es-Salaam, Africans quickly mastered the art of printing.

The third task was to train African personnel for subordinate posts in the public service. The first government school was built at Tanga in 1893. Tanga school served as a model for others. It had three sections: one for children, one for the training of clerks and one for training domestic servants. Tanga school was so popular that feeder schools had to be established within the district, and a craft department was added. In theory, schooling for boys at Tanga was made compulsory in 1899.

Statistics show that in 1900 missionaries as well as the government had educated 900 Protestant denomination pupils, 50,000 Roman Catholic denomination pupils, 1,600 pupils in government schools (Tanga, Bagamogo and Dar-es-Salaam), making a total of 52,500 pupils.

In 1914, 6,100 pupils were enrolled in government schools and 148,243 in mission schools. There were altogether more than 1,800 schools. World War I disrupted schooling that had flourished promisingly. Teachers and pupils were dispersed.

4. The British Period 1919-1961

When the British took over Tanzania in 1919, after defeating the Germans in the First World War, they almost followed the former system and goals of education which were later on changed as their hope of staying longer in Tanzania grew bigger. Their main aim was to train selected Africans to understand and carry out administrative orders in writing. Through the British system of education, people looked down upon manual labour as being inferior to white collar jobs which were favoured in terms of wages and salary. It also encouraged academic rather than technical and scientifically based training, the result of which was lazy and irresponsible citizens who never made full use of educational opportunities offered to them. The gap between parents and their school-going children created tensions and undermined parental control and responsibility because the school-going children

were very much respected by their parents because they were colonialism intoxicated - the parents, because of their differences, felt that they were inferior to their own children as far as colonial civilization was concerned.

By 1924 about 5,000 children were attending some 72 public schools, most of them being lower primary establishments. Another 162,000 pupils studied in schools run by missions. Altogether about 21% of the child population was registered as attending school offering a four year course designed to achieve literacy in the vernacular, to inculcate a knowledge of arithmetic, hygiene, simple agricultural improvements, and in mission schools, to impart an understanding of, and belief in Christianity. Equipment was scarce and the standard of teaching low.

The Phelps-Stokes mission (Annual Report of the Ministry of Education, 1966, p. 9), which visited Tanzania in 1924 and the Orsmby-Gore Commission, which went to East Africa shortly afterwards, both considered that the British Administration was not paying sufficient attention to African education and ought to cooperate more closely with the missions in the field of education. In that year, the colonial system of education was 2:2:2 - the first two years were for elementary education, the two years that follow offered central education and the final two years offered higher education with an industrial bias.

As a result of these two missions, a special conference was held in Dar-es-Salaam to draft a bill to

provide for a state system of African education with provision for grants-in-aid to approved voluntary agencies. Thus the 1924/25 recurrent expenditures on education (1.2% of the country's total revenue), rose to more than 3.35% in 1928/29.

In 1930 the 1924 educational system was changed. Instead a 2:4 system (two years of elementary education and four years of central education), was introduced, but it did not live long because in 1932 it was changed when a 4:2 system was introduced - four years of primary education and two years of central education. It was in this system that emphasis was put on women's education.

Unlike the Germans, the British were very slow in expanding education. In 1939, for example, the number of children registered as at school, 85,000 was actually less than in the early 1920s. Education in the primary school, theoretically of 4 years duration, took many children 5 to 8 years to complete, as a result of irregular attendance. The announced aim of these schools was to make good farmers and good citizens.

The Second World War (1939-1945) disrupted development. While it was going on changes and expansion also took place in the educational system (Cameron & Dodd, 1970, p. 61), when a 4:2:4 system was introduced in 1940. Primary education was in two stages, the first two years being for village schools and two years for central education (District Schools) whereby pupils who were selected to enter them had to sit for a selective examination at the village school level.

The other four years (which are not the concern of this paper), were spent in junior secondary school. 1944 saw the formation of Education Committees whose duty it was to enhance primary education. They were known as District Education Committees. They planned and supervised the development of primary education in their respective districts.

After the Second World War, 1945, the need and desire for progress in education was clearly apparent. With the coming into being of the United Nations, mainland Tanzania became a Trusteeship Territory (Annual Report, 1966, p. 11). Under Article 6 of the Trusteeship Agreement the administering authority - the British, had to assume a new responsibility, namely to promote the development of free, political institutions suited to Tanzania, and to that end develop the participation of its inhabitants. These obligations could not be fulfilled with the educational system as it existed in 1945. For this reason education was given major emphasis in the Ten Year Development Plan introduced in 1946 effective 1947. The target was to have 36% of the children of the primary school age in primary school by 1956, with the expansion of Middle School education (Middle School was the name given to the former Central Schools). Goals were set for 200 such schools for boys and 32 for girls.

The result of the Ten Year Education Plan was that in 1949 there were 5,420 mission and government schools with

a total of 208,000 children. In 1950 the 4:2:2 system was replaced by the 4:4:4 one. The first two years were for primary education (Standards I-IV), the next four years were designed for middle schools (Standards V-VIII). The last four years were for secondary education (Standards IX-XII). This new system brought about these changes:

(a) Examinations were done at the end of Standards IV and VIII for primary education, and X and XII for secondary education.

(b) Swahili became the medium of instruction in Standards I-VI and English remained the medium of instruction in Standards VII-VIII.

The primary education expansion in the Ten Year Plan necessitated the introduction of double session schools in Standards I-IV to cope with the increasing number of pupils against a small number of teachers. As a result, two teachers handled four classes a day, each class studying half a day. For example, one teacher took Standard I in the mroning session and Standard III in the afternoon session, at the same time the other teacher could take Standard IV in the morning and Standard II in the afternoon. In 1956, the end of the Ten Year Plan it was reported that:

(a) Of the 336,000 primary school pupils enroled in government schools, between 1947 and 1956, 100,000 were girls.

(b) There were 250 Middle Schools with a population of 28,000 boys and girls.

5. Types of Schools

In 1919 authority was given to reopen the government and mission schools which were naturally closed as a result of war. The following year a director of education was appointed, charged with the duties of reorganizing curriculum for African population. He had difficulty tracing formal teachers when the war was over, some of them had taken alternative jobs which they did not want to leave.

At that time of Tanganyika's development, the British government thought it necessary to consider educational programmes on a racial basis. It claimed the need to provide facilities for the indigeneous population as something of major importance as a first stage towards the achievement of the ultimate objective of educational policy. As a result, primary schools for all races were conducted racially by government and some voluntary agencies.

Non-African Education

As regards to non-African education we know very little, except that it is believed that from the late 1920s onwards, six year primary courses were provided at public expense for Europeans and Asians in racially segregated, co-educational day schools (Morrison, 1976, p. 47). A few European boarding institutions were also established.

However, European and Indian education authorities were established in 1949 under the provisions of the non-Native Education Ordinance. This empowered them to control the organization of education for their respective communities,

the maintenance of schools, and the management of funds. The education of Goans and other non-Africans who were neither Europeans nor Indians, continued to be looked after by the Department of Education with the assistance of a representative advisory committee.

African Education

In regard to African education, much information has been given above in pages 6 - 9 of this paper.

6. Scope of Curriculum

In the case of African schools, the school system was divided into primary, middle (central) and secondary stages. The course of training here was designed in such a way that it might provide a good foundation for further education. At the same time, since only a portion of the pupils in the primary schools would have a chance of proceeding to secondary schools, the primary course aimed at being complete in itself. The curriculum had a strong bias on agriculture, animal husbandry (95% of the population are peasants and herdsmen), carpentry and homecrafts. The following is a comparative racial curriculum for each stage of the various schools in the country.

Africans

The curriculum included Swahili - reading and writing, arithmetic, geography, history and civics, gardening, physical education and religious knowledge, in the primary schools. In the middle schools special emphasis was not placed on practical work in connection with agriculture and animal

husbandry; except science, geography and history.

In late 1950s, there was a growing awareness of defects in the Middle School curriculum. Its concentration on fitting pupils to earn their living in urban occupations was not in keeping with the economic realities. It was therefore, adopted that these schools must prepare pupils for the normal vocation of the areas from which they came. More emphasis began to be placed on agriculture, animal husbandry and general handwork. This experiment, made in a colonial setting, against a background of rising national feeling, provoked justifiable suspicions and, consequently, met with only limited success. The setting was as follows:

A. In the boys' boarding schools, the syllabus embraced subjects linked with one another as closely as possible. These subjects were Arithmetic and Practical Geometry; English; Swahili; General Knowledge (Geography, History, Civics and Current Affairs); General Science (Health Science, Biology and Agricultural Science); Agriculture and Animal Husbandry (where applicable); and Religious Knowledge. In the Girls' boarding schools Homecraft was given in addition and where applicable, Agriculture and Animal Husbandry was of a light type. In urban areas where agricultural and animal husbandry work was not possible, a greater emphasis was on woodwork, tin-smithery and handwork.

B. Timetable

In Middle Schools with agricultural or animal husbandry bias, the timetable needed to be flexible to allow

more practical work to be done during the times of the year when the seasonal requirements of farm work rendered it necessary (Provisional Middle School Syllabus, p. 4). For this reason, the following two timetables operated.

Timetable for Light Farm Work Period

This was in operation when there was very little work to be done on the farm, it was usually during the dry season.

6:00-7:30 a.m.	Early morning work on farm, attending to needs of livestock, dairy and general domestic duties.
7:30 a.m.	Breakfast
8:00-8:15 a.m.	Assembly.
8:15-10:15 a.m.	Three classroom or instructional workshop periods of 40 minutes each.
10:15-10:25 a.m.	Break
10:25-11:45 a.m.	Two classroom or instructional workshop periods of 40 minutes each.
12:00 noon	Midday meal followed by rest and individual activities.
2:40-4:00 p.m.	Two classroom or instructional workshop periods of 40 minutes each.
4:00-6:30 p.m.	Agriculture and animal husbandry work on farm.
6:30 p.m.	Evening meal and recreation.

Timetable for Heavy Farm Work Period

This timetable was in operation in that period of the year, rainy season, when there was much to be done.

6:00-7:30 a.m.	Early morning work on farm, attending to needs of livestock, dairy and general domestic duties.
7:30 a.m.	Breakfast
8:00-11:45 a.m.	Agricultural and animal husbandry work on farm.
12:00 noon	Midday meal followed by rest and individual activities.
2:35-2:45 p.m.	Assembly
2:45-4:45 p.m.	Three classroom or instructional workshop periods of 40 minutes each.
4:45-5:00 p.m.	Break
5:00-6:30 p.m.	Two classroom or instructional workshop periods of 45 minutes each.
6:30 p.m.	Evening meal and recreation.

These two timetables were designed for operation on five full days and one half day in each week. During the one and a half rest days per week, only such work as is essential for the maintenance of livestock and farm would be done. As evidenced by the following analysis, emphasis was given to English, Arithmetic and Handcraft. Swahili, the language spoken by the majority was given the least consideration.

Allocation of Periods Within the Above Two Timetables

	Std. V-VI	Std. VII-VIII	All Standards
Arithmetic & Practical Geometry	6	8	6
English	12	10	6
Swahili	2	2	1
General Knowledge	6	6	4
General Science	4	4	4
Handcraft	7	7	2
Religion	3	3	2
Total	40	40	25

In the urban boys' day Middle Schools the following allocation worked throughout the year, on five full working days per week.

Subject	All Standards
Arithmetic and Practical Geometry	5 periods
English	10 periods
Swahili	2 periods
General Knowledge	5 periods
General Science	3 periods
Handcraft	7 periods
Religious Instructions	3 periods
Total	35 periods

This system worked for quite a number of years, even after independence. The defects, hinted above, necessitated drastic changes in the curriculum as it will be discussed in the following chapters.

Asians

The curriculum for Asian schools was designed to cover six years. The main subjects taught included Gujerati or Urdu (the two main Asian languages), Arithmetic, History, Geography, Hygiene, Nature Study and Handicraft. English began in Standard IV, after children had mastered the two Asian languages. Physical Education and games were included in the out-of-school activities.

Europeans

In the lower grades much emphasis was put on English language, History and Arithmetic. Other subjects taught were Art, Geography, Singing and Nature Study. In the upper classes Algebra, Geometry, General Science, French and Latin were taught, while Handwork, games and Physical Education were largely taught as out-of-door activities.

7. Management of Schools

Primary education was under the management of different agencies in the government (central), local authority and voluntary agencies.

(a) The Government

The Central Government was directly responsible for the running, maintenance and financing primary and middle schools in towns, municipalities and the city, and

girls' middle schools in the country, which were being headed by Europeans. It provided teachers (and paid their salaries), school materials, uniforms and food for those boarding middle schools. It collected school fees that ranged from forty to sixty shillings. Poor parents were exempted from paying school fees.

(b) Local Authority

Local Authorities (also known as Native Treasury), were formed as a result of the Indirect Rule System. They formed the district authority. They were charged with the responsibility of developing their rural areas with the resources they had, that is by utilizing taxes and dues they collected. Their main tasks were to supervise, finance and build primary and middle schools. The central government supplied books and equipment, teachers and paid their salaries.

(c) Voluntary Agencies

These were mostly religious bodies (Roman Catholics, Universities Mission to Central Africa, Lutheran, Seventh Day Adventist, Africa Inland Mission and Muslims), which opted to build primary schools and non-secular instructions. The establishment and organization of schools for African children by these voluntary agencies was governed by the African Education Ordinance (1949), but schools established for the purpose of teaching religion were exempted from this provision. The ordinance states: "No person may open or maintain a school with the meaning of the Ordinance, unless

and until such school is registered in the register of schools kept by the Director of Education who may refuse to register a school unless the particulars required by him are supplied."

The Ordinance also provided for the registration of teachers and for publication in the official gazette of lists of all teachers registered. An Advisory Committee for African Education was established under the Ordinance. It consisted of official and non-official members, the latter including representatives of voluntary agencies and African members.

Operation of Voluntary Agencies

Each voluntary agency had its highest official known as Education Secretary General, with his office in the capital city of Dar-es-Salaam. In the provinces they had assistants known as Education Secretaries. All these were Europeans. Their appointments differed according to the concentration of schools in the province. Some agencies had one Education Secretary for two or three provinces, and sometimes it was necessary to appoint Education Assistants, most of whom were Africans.

These administrators were concerned with the using of money subsidized by the government as grants in aid for paying teachers' salaries, books and stationery for their respective schools. Because Education Secretaries and Education Assistants were qualified and experienced teachers, their educational task was to inspect their schools alongside

with government School Supervisor/Inspectors whose duty was to see if the money issued by the government was being put into proper use.

Advantages of Voluntary Agencies

In fact, the voluntary agencies were the pioneers of establishing schools in Tanzania. Most of the highly educated people, including our President, passed through these schools. These bodies built schools even in the most remote areas with difficult accessibility. Their involvement in building schools saved the government money.

Disadvantages of Voluntary Agencies

The agencies were more or less religious oriented. They tended to have their own syllabi slightly different from that being used in government and local authority schools. They even reached the extent of refusing to use some of the textbooks used in the government schools because they felt they were not in conformity with their faith. Bishops, in some cases, had to give clearance on the books to be used.

Due to lack of funds, as contributions by these bodies, the standards of some of the schools were appalling. They paid their teachers salaries which were less than government teachers and these teachers had no fringe benefits such as holiday travel allowances, pension or medical allowances. As a result, many teachers left these agencies and joined the government.

Another drawback of these agencies was that they opened schools contrary to the African Education Ordinance. These schools were known as "Bush Schools," whose academic standards were low. However, the few bright children from these schools were carefully selected for proper primary I. In 1952, for example, there were 6,610 "Bush Schools" with an enrolment of 267,000 children. The following information is contained in the Handbook of Africa, as far as the number of schools by agency is concerned, in 1956:

Management	No. of Schools	Enrolment	No. of Teachers
Primary			
1. Government & Local Authority	739		
2. V. Agencies	1,871	375,008	6,604
3. Unaided	71		
Middle			
1. Government & Local Authority	138		
2. V. Agencies	212	38,413	1,910
3. Unaided	9		
Total	2,040	413,421	8,514

Overall Duty of Government

The most important duty of the government on education was to see that teachers were doing their job properly. This was done by government School Supervisors, carefully appointed by the Director of Education, after

being recommended by their respective Provincial Education Officers. These Supervisors visited primary schools, inspected them and wrote reports on them. Middle Schools were being inspected by the Assistant Provincial Education Officers, who were Europeans. Because they were not many, most of these Middle Schools could not be inspected or seen for many years. In some occasions the District Commissioner, or his Assistant, people who had never been teachers before, would visit and inspect schools, and produce reports, reporting on teaching methods.

8. Post Primary Education

This chapter will be incomplete if no mention is made of what happened to primary and Middle School leavers. In the colonial system of education it was not properly defined from which class a pupil should go to secondary school. It sometimes depended on the discretion of heads of secondary schools. Normally children sat for secondary school entrance examination after completing standard VI at a district school because many secondary schools in those days started from Standard VII. In a few cases, heads of secondary schools (Europeans), visited primary schools to interview and administer intelligence tests to enable them to pick the best pupils. Others were selected for either vocational schools or to train as Grade II teachers. The rest, about 81%, would return to the farm or the lucky ones would join the police force, be trained as agricultural instructors or clerks.

9. Public Primary School Enrolment

Accurate figures for the number of children who were in public primary schools before independence, the period this chapter dealt with, could not be available. However, between 1926 and 1956 the following figures were given at five year intervals (Morrison, 1976, pp. 45-46).

A. Enrolment in African Primary Schools

Year	Years 1-6 (Assisted)	Years 1-4 (Unassisted)
1926	5,843	162,806
1931	22,693	144,917
1936	30,570	191,061
1941	-	-
1946	115,516	-
1951	194,251	-
1956	345,014	84,300

B. Enrolment in Asian Primary Schools

Year	Years 1-6
1926	1,300
1931	2,844
1936	3,742
1941	-
1946	7,277
1951	10,687
1956	14,461

C. Enrolment in European Schools

Year	Years 1-6
1926	580
1931	438
1936	725
1941	539
1946	599
1951	1,508
1956	1,929

At independence 486,470 children were attending public primary schools. Progress in extending lower primary schools up to Standard VII proceeded faster than ever, as it is statistically given in the following chapter. The striking success of this programme is revealed in the following figures as an example.

	1961	1966
Number of children attending public school	486,470	740,991
Number of public primary school leavers	11,740	52,574

10. Training of Teachers

Up to 1956 there were 30 Teacher Training Colleges (Annual Report, 1956), mostly run by Voluntary Agencies. Of these four trained Grade I teachers and 26 trained Grade II teachers. In that year there were 2,072 Grade II and 182 Grade I teacher trainees.

Grade II teacher trainees were those who passed Standard VIII examinations. They stayed at the College for two years learning methods of teaching, school organization, Child Study and academic studies in Swahili, English, History, Nature Study and Geography. Two months were devoted to teaching practice.

Grade I trainees were those who successfully completed and passed Standard X examination or Cambridge School Certificate which is equivalent to Grade XII. They too underwent a two year training at Teachers' Colleges, attached

to secondary schools. Tabora Secondary School, for example, had a Grade I wing up to 1953, when it was transferred to Mpwapwa Teachers' College. Their training included methods of teaching, school organization, Child Psychology, English, Swahili, Mathematics and Civics. Due to a shortage of manpower, Grade I teachers were specially being prepared for Middle Schools.

PART TWO: PRIMARY EDUCATION AFTER INDEPENDENCE

1. Expansion

Soon after independence educational priorities changed as the country became more aware of her national requirements hence the limited resources were used first to prepare citizens for the competent execution of the jobs which the community wanted done. For this reason an early objective was universal literacy, which aimed at providing for all the citizens the basic tool with which they could become more efficient in their daily work, and which they could use to improve their own education.

The expansion of the primary school system was accompanied by efforts to change its entire spirit and purpose. The school became a preparation for life and work in the community, a place at which skills and attitudes are developed and knowledge gained, which are needed by the community and will contribute to its development. The primary schools are the people's school, not merely a preparation for the further education of the few. The change of the primary school into people's schools has been brought about partly by changing the curriculum.

In the First Five-Year Development Plan, 1964-1969, a very definite decision was taken to give priority to the expansion of secondary education. That meant there was

very little money available to devote to expanding the primary school system as well. The 1967 national census, however, revealed that the population was increasing at a faster rate than was assumed when the First Plan was prepared. It was worked on the assumption that the total population of Tanzania was about 10 million but the census showed that in fact it was 12½ million. Initially it was thought that the annual rate of increase was 22 for every thousand people, but it was discovered that the rate of increase was 27 for every thousand people, which meant that in the five years that followed the population was expected to increase by 35,000 people every year - these being 350,000 extra babies in arms.

As a result of the increasing number of Tanzanian children due to population growth, the emphasis in the new plan shifted to the expansion of primary education. At that time the majority of children who went to primary school had to leave after Standard IV. It was felt that money and effort were being wasted by giving children four years education, and then abandoning them at an age when they were very likely to forget even that little which they had learned. The government was, therefore, forced to remove the iniquitous and absurd Standard IV examination. This meant that, instead of greatly expanding the number of Standard I classes, the government had rapidly to increase the number of classes at Standards V, VI and VII, in order that every child who entered primary school was to get a full seven

years education. This decision was made because the nation believed it was better that money was spent on providing one child with a seven year education which might help him or her to become a useful member of society. For details see the following Table.

TABLE 1: Public Primary School Enrolment Comparative Figures 1961-1975

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
1961	316,366	170,104	486,470
1962	334,291	184,372	518,663
1963	375,246	216,858	592,004
1964	404,057	229,616	633,673
1965	444,305	265,895	710,200
1966	456,903	284,088	740,991
1967	464,418	288,696	753,114
1968	459,224	294,946	754,170
1969	373,960	302,149	676,109
1970	500,713	327,271	827,984
1971	545,858	356,761	902,619
1972	605,696	397,900	1,003,596
1973	661,975	444,412	1,106,387
1974	739,526	532,896	1,272,422
1975	924,284	668,112	1,592,396

2. Staffing in Public Primary Schools and Training of Teachers

To match with the rapid primary school expansion, it was necessary to increase the number of teacher trainees of all grades. In 1961 there were 9,885 primary school teachers as compared to 15,271 teachers in 1967. In both periods the teacher-pupil ratios were 1:49.2 and 1:49.3 respectively.

As a result of a Presidential directive at the end of 1966 on the non-engagement of expatriate volunteers for

primary school work, a large number of U.S.A. Peace Corps Volunteers who completed their two year contracts were not replaced. Again, in conformity with the new approach to education advocated in "Education for Self-Reliance", the ministry stopped, as a matter of policy, the recruitment or re-engagement of non-citizen teachers for primary schools. These decisions had only limited effects on Primary School Staffing because of the large group of Grade A teachers who completed their training as shown in Table 3. Thus the number of Grade A teachers in Public Primary Schools rose from 537 during 1964 to 11,484 during 1975.

TABLE 2: Number of Serving Teachers by Grade 1961-1975

Year	Educ. Officers	Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Others	Total
1961	-	-	-	-	-	9,885
1962	-	-	-	-	-	10,273
1963	-	-	-	-	-	11,100
1964	-	537	1,379	9,704	424	12,044
1965	-	812	1,556	10,830	378	13,576
1966	-	1,203	1,676	11,500	430	14,809
1967	-	1,338	1,624	11,950	359	15,271
1968	-	1,842	1,626	12,041	216	15,725
1969	141	2,641	2,461	11,284	42	16,577
1970	192	3,862	3,327	10,355	52	17,790
1971	236	5,036	3,664	10,757	92	19,786
1972	292	6,568	4,824	10,214	38	21,926
1973	386	7,831	5,838	9,078	34	23,168
1974	768	10,250	6,846	7,390	-	25,254
1975	780	11,484	6,974	8,634	911*	28,783

*Indicates Tanzania volunteers, especially for Universal Primary Education.

TABLE 3: Student Teachers Who Completed Training Enforced Those Who Were Already Working 1961-1975

Year	Educ. Officers	Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Total
1961	-	47	193	481	721
1962	-	90	129	717	936
1963	-	86	97	733	916
1964	-	182	50	705	936
1965	-	279	-	850	1,129
1966	16	476	-	619	1,113
1967	35	694	-	633	1,362
1968	58	787	-	350	1,195
1969	86	814	-	144	1,044
1970	100	1,179	-	861	2,142
1971	102	831	-	1,812	2,745
1972	125	809	-	1,767	2,701
1973	figures not available				
1974	253	1,846	80	1,863	4,042
1975	175	1,314	97	1,179	2,765

Between 1967 and 1969 the Grade C teacher trainees intake was reduced to give rise to their counterparts, Grade As, because it was felt that to get better educated citizens it was necessary to offer better teaching in the primary level. This was also necessitated by the increasing number of upper classes of the primary schools that needed better qualified teachers capable of teaching subjects such as science and mathematics most effectively - see Table 4.

The programme of change and expansion in people's schools made necessary large expansion of institutions for the training of teachers and important changes in the course of training. It involved almost doubling of the capacity of teachers' colleges and an increase in the entry into

training courses from 1824 in 1970 to 7590 in 1975 - see Table 4. In order to accelerate progress in the schools a new type of teacher (Grade D) was trained. These were persons who had completed Standard VII or VIII and had undergone national service. After one year of training at a teachers' college, they took up posts in schools, teaching mainly in the lower standards.

TABLE 4: Teacher Training Inputs by Grades 1961-1975

Year	Educ. Officers	Grade A	Grade B	Grade C	Total
1961	-	92	129	780	1,021
1962	-	86	103	753	942
1963	-	183	50	700	933
1964	-	239	-	891	1,130
1965	17	493	-	625	1,045
1966	41	706	-	643	1,390
1967	51	818	-	359	1,228
1968	86	1,086	-	150	1,322
1969	102	1,189	-	312	1,603
1970	102	761	-	961	1,824
1971	155	676	-	899	1,730
1972	219	850	-	1,213	2,282
1973		FIGURES	NOT	AVAILABLE	
1974	408	1,897	83	3,508	5,936
1975	245	1,176	92	6,072	7,590

3. Curriculum Changes

One of the major changes in the Primary School System after independence was on curriculum. Colonial syllabuses and curricula at primary level had been based on British prototypes, and were in many ways inappropriate to the Tanzania situation. Thus the educational establishment, as it was taken over in 1967, was ill equipped and hardly

designed to meet the requirements of an independent African country with strong aspirations for economic and social change (Ministry's Annual Report, 1967, p. 7).

The nation's leaders and people were fully aware of these defects and sought as quickly as they could to remedy them and build a system of education which would be truly national and in keeping with the needs and values of the country. To this effect, in 1963 a new Primary School curriculum was approved for use in schools. However, in a few subjects such as English, Arithmetic and Science the same textbooks used before independence were still used, but there were great changes in the number of periods allocated to subjects. Kiswahili, for example, which had few periods was given more than English, especially in the lower classes. Such changes have been going on and the most recent allocation of periods to subjects given below even shows a broader breakdown of subjects than it had been four years ago. Agriculture, which is part of Education for Self-Reliance activities, is not shown.

Subject	Classes and Number of Periods						
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Arithmetic	5	5	7	7	5	7	8
Kiswahili	-	-	11	7	6	5	5
English	5	5	6	6	8	6	6
History	-	-	-	3	3	3	2
Geography	-	-	3	3	3	3	3
Science	1	1	5	5	4	4	4
Handicraft	-	-	-	-	3	3	3
Domestic Science	1	1	2	2	3	4	4
Religious Instructions	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Physical Education	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
Language	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Political Education	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
Music and Singing	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
Art and Crafts	2	3	2	2	-	-	-
Writing	4	4	-	-	-	-	-
Health	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Reading	4	5	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	30	30	40	40	40	40	40

While the Ministry's Five Year Development Plan targets remained unchanged in 1967, that year was regarded as an important and revolutionary one in that, consequent upon the publication of "Education for Self-Reliance" during March, 1967, the primary school curriculum and its objectives were completely changed. For the first time Agriculture was introduced in the Primary School curriculum, and scientific agricultural practices were taught in the majority of primary schools with a view of developing such schools into economic institutions.

Another important policy decision made during that year, which was expected to have far-reaching effects, was to make Swahili the medium of instruction in all Primary Schools except those which catered mainly for children

of expatriates. In general, therefore, primary education ceased to be regarded as a stepping stone for higher education, and became complete in itself, aimed at fitting young people for gainful self-employment in their respective communities (Ministry's Annual Report, 1967, p. 13). Thus the new curriculum was issued in 1969 for use in Primary Schools. The following is an example of a general goal of the English subject.

"The overall aim of the course is to give primary school leavers a permanent reading knowledge of English. This will give them access, after they have left school, to ideas and information available in English and useful to his country. The emphasis throughout will be on English in realistic settings in a Tanzania situation." (English Syllabus, November 1969, p. 3).

Textbooks

The change of curriculum in most cases meant a change of textbooks too. The textbooks carried over after independence could no longer be appropriate, especially after the publication of Education for Self-Reliance in 1967.

Achievements were made on the side of book production. Various workshops produced books embodied in Education for Self-Reliance. As a result the new syllabuses in Maths, Science, Kiswahili, Geography, History and Civics were introduced in 1969. Since then many more book production workshops had been meeting, until recently when the Institute of Education was entrusted with this task.

4. Implementation of Curriculum

During colonial period the implementation of the Primary School curriculum was in the hands of Mission and Government School Supervisors for Standards I-IV and the Assistant Provincial Education Officers for Standards V-VIII in case of government schools. Education Secretaries, who were normally white missionaries, were responsible for Standards V-VIII of the mission schools.

(a) Primary School Inspectors

In November, 1962, the first bunch of new cadre of implementers (Primary School Inspectors) was created when twenty-two Tanzanians were sent to Israel for a four month study tour. On their return to Tanzania in March, 1963, these new officers underwent a four month course after which they were posted to the regions. Since then other people had been trained for this job each year. There are now 215 School Inspectors in the country, 53 of whom are women whose main duty is to inspect the teaching of Domestic Science.

The overall task of these officers is to provide a basis for concrete and constructive advice designed to improve the quality of the education of the children. This task is accomplished by inspecting and producing accurate and honest reports upon schools and upon teachers; organizing both short weekend and longer courses and seminars; and finally meeting teachers (Dodd, 1968).

The longer specialised courses equip teachers with modern methods in the teaching of new maths, science, Kiswahili and English. Several courses are run specially for political education aimed at equipping teachers with a clear understanding of the people's aspirations based on socialism and to find means and ways of implementing socialist in the fullest sense and how best this can be inculcated to school pupils.

(b) Up-Grading Teachers

Up to 1970 two grades were reached by up-grading teachers who were selected to join such courses, so that they could implement the primary school curriculum. Ordinary up-grading course from C-B was being offered in the early years of independence to competent Grade C teachers. The selected candidates had to undergo training in modern methods of teaching, plus political education with emphasis on Education for Self-Reliance in schools. This system was replaced by the Tanzania UNICEF/UNESCO Project in 1970.

Another up-grading course from Grade C or B teachers to Grade A was also offered. Selection for the course required candidates to possess a prescribed number of passes in the East African Examination or its equivalent. In completion of their courses the teachers were to teach in the upper classes of primary schools.

(c) The Tanzania UNICEF/UNESCO Project (M.T.U.U.)

Under an agreement of assistance to Tanzania on education, UNICEF/UNESCO, acting on behalf of the United

Nations, are spending many dollars on courses for primary school teachers. In its 1970 experimental phase, the project enabled 1,545 teachers to attend courses at various colleges of education. In 1972 a total of 2,334 Grade C and B primary school teachers attended residential courses while in 1973 there were 2,248 teachers on such courses. 2,170 teachers attended residential courses in 1974, thus making a total of 8,297 teachers between 1970 and 1974.

5. Special Education

Special education system was introduced in Tanzania by the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind during 1960. In 1962 two schools were opened, where blind children were enrolled at normal Primary Schools and taught braille for the first 18 months, after which they joined the sighted children in all classroom work. In 1967 there were 8 such schools with 169 blind children, 100 at residential schools and 69 at special education schools. The following schools were opened between 1962 and 1974.

Name of School	Region	Year Opened
1. Furaha	Tabora	1962
2. Irente	Tanga	1962
3. Uhuru	Dar-es-Salaam	1963
4. Buhangija	Shinyanga	1966
5. Mugeza	West Lake	1966
6. Kabanga	Uigoma	1967
7. Masasi	Mtwara	1967
8. Singida	Singida	1967
9. Pongwe	Tanga	1968
10. Hombolo	Dodoma	1970
11. Mwanhala	Tabora	1973
12. Makalala	Iringa	1974

The Ministry of National Education is very serious about special education. During the 1975/76 academic year the number of teachers who were still taking special courses outside Tanzania was 21 in all, viz.:

United Kingdom	10	teachers for blind children
Holland	2	teachers for blind children
U.S.A.	1	teacher for blind children
Holland	4	teachers for deaf mute
Ireland	3	teachers for deaf mute
Ghana	1	teacher for deaf mute
Total	21	teachers

Projection

So that open education goes hand in hand with the normal primary school expansion it was necessary to get reliable statistics. The following information was obtained from 16 regions mainly for universal primary school education for the handicapped children in November 1977. Because of the big difference in age - between 7 and 12 years - it will be necessary to start enrolling the older children in Standard I.

Special Handicap	Total Number
Blind	467
Partially sighted	472
Deaf Mute	471
Partially Deaf	679
Mute	643
Crippled	1,829
Mentally retarded	882
Multi-Handicapped	881
Total	6,324

PART THREE: EDUCATION FOR SELF-RELIANCE

1. Why It Came Into Being

It has been discussed in Part One of this paper how Tanzania was colonized and that the education system faced two different foreign transitional patterns - German and British systems of education. The educated Africans, though not very highly, got employment in various government departments mostly as clerks, teachers and policemen. They felt they were superior to the uneducated fellow Africans because their education and the jobs they were doing made them live in big towns where life was better than in the village because they could buy clothes, food and many other luxurious commodities that the ordinary countryman in the rural area could not afford.

The fact that manual work was for the uneducated people while the white collar job was an authority, any school-going person was highly motivated with the hope that one day he would be an authority. For this reason schools transmitted alien traditions and attitudes to life. The educated workers usually behaved unnaturally, they sought unnecessary respect and sometimes too pompous for their posts. When Tanzania achieved independence it inherited both the British system of education and the workers prepared, who still had colinial mentality, hence it was difficult to

change overnight. The solution for this malady was a complete overhaul of the education system that necessitated the introduction of the philosophy of education for self-reliance, which are part and parcel of The Arusha Declaration.

The Arusha Declaration which was avowed in Arusha on February 5th, 1967, lays down the policy of socialism and self-reliance. The policy of socialism states that in a true socialist state all people are workers and there is neither capitalism nor feudalism; no person exploits another, but everybody who is able to work does so and gets a fair income for his labour; and incomes do not differ substantially. It states that there are only four categories of people who can live on other people's sweat. These are children, senior citizens, cripples and those for whom the state at any one time cannot provide with employment. They include the blind and the deaf.

The way to build and maintain socialism is to ensure that the major means of production are under the control and ownership of the peasants and the workers themselves through their government and their co-operative societies. For this reason since February 5th, 1967, most of the major private enterprises were nationalized. These included all banks owned by foreigners, import and export companies, and insurance companies (Arusha Declaration, p. 3).

On the other hand, the policy of self-reliance urges people to work hard in order to develop their country that was once regarded unproductive (colonial poor attitude).

In his writing, President J. K. Nyerere says, "In order to maintain our independence and our people's freedom, we ought to be self-reliant in every possible way and avoid depending upon other countries for assistance." (Arusha Declaration, 1967, p. 17).

In order to achieve these goals it is essential to inculcate this philosophy into people's minds during the formative years, especially to school children hence a month after the declaration, President Nyerere issued a policy paper on "Education for Self-Reliance".

In the Education for Self-Reliance policy paper, President Nyerere, as leader of Tanzania, has been fundamentally concerned with the way the government should provide public education, which in content, approach and values is more relevant to the emerging Tanzanian society. He says that this education should be provided to more people without straining the limited resources of the country out of all proportion.

The philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance is based on the assumption that the education of an individual must be directly related to the particular society in which he is living. The education of the nation should transmit from one generation to the next the accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the society, and to prepare young people for their future membership of the society and their active participation in its maintenance and development. It is necessary to take this step due to the result of the failure

of inherited educational system in turning out young men responsible for the development of their country. The motto in Tanzania is "Freedom and Work". The main task in schools now is to turn out young men who have more tendency of shunning capitalistic as well as individualistic communialism and socialism and develop a sense of equality, value and sympathize with their fellow men who had no chance of going to school by teaching them how to read and write.

Since independence many faults have been corrected. Racial distinctions within education were abolished, many children have been offered education and the education now offered is much more Tanzanian in content. Since we are aiming at building a socialist society based on three principles - equality and respect for human dignity; sharing of the resources produced by our efforts; and work by everyone and exploitation by none, we must work to change into something relevant if we are to make progress towards these goals.

Our village life as well as our state organization is based on the principles of socialism and share equally the fruits of our sweat. Our education, therefore, inculcates a sense of commitment to the total community, and help the pupils to accept values appropriate to our kind of future. The education provided must broadly encourage the development in each citizen the three things: an inquiring mind, an ability to learn from what others do, and to reject or adapt it to his own needs; and a basic confidence in his own

position as a free and equal member of the society, who values others and is valued by them for what he does and not for what he obtains.

The education which was being offered up to 1967 was basically an elitist one designed to meet the interests and needs of very small proportion of those who were offered places in school. Adjustments to those faults were made by the overhaul content of school curriculum, the organization of schools, and the entry age into primary schools (see next part). It follows that the education given to our primary school children should be complete in itself and not a preparation for secondary school. The teaching (curriculum in general) and ways of evaluating their work should be modified and focused on the majority. For this reason universal primary education will be offered starting November, 1977, instead of 1984, as it is given in the next part.

The changes to the curriculum have been made and they include the integration of the school activities with those of the locality. Schools are now communities practising the precept of Self-Reliance. Each school has a farm or a workshop or both attached to it. The school farms are not highly mechanized demonstration farms because we do not have the capital which would be necessary for this to happen, and neither would it teach the pupils anything about the life they will be leading. Instead, the school farms are created by the school community clearing their own bush, and so on,

but doing it together. By such means the students learn the advantages of co-operative endeavour, even when outside capital is not available. Again, the advantages of co-operation are studied in the classroom, as well as being demonstrated on the farm.

The most important thing is that the school members learn that it is their farm, and that their living standards depend on it. Pupils are given an opportunity to make many of the decisions necessary, for example, whether to spend money they have earned on hiring a tractor to get land ready for planting, or whether to use that money for other purposes on the farm or in the school. By this sort of practice and by this combination of classroom work and farm work, the educated young people learn to realize that if they farm well, they can eat well, and have better facilities at school.

By such means students relate work to comfort. They learn the meaning of living together and working together for the good of all, and also the value of working together with the local non-school community. They learn that many things require more than school effort, that development requires a choice between present and future satisfaction, both for themselves and their village (Nyerere, 1967, pp. 19-20). In general, the specific objectives of education for self-reliance are to reinforce the social ethic, to prepare pupils for 'ujamaa' (socialism); and to equip the pupil with knowledge, skills and attitudes which will help him in his future life.

2. Implementation of Education for Self-Reliance

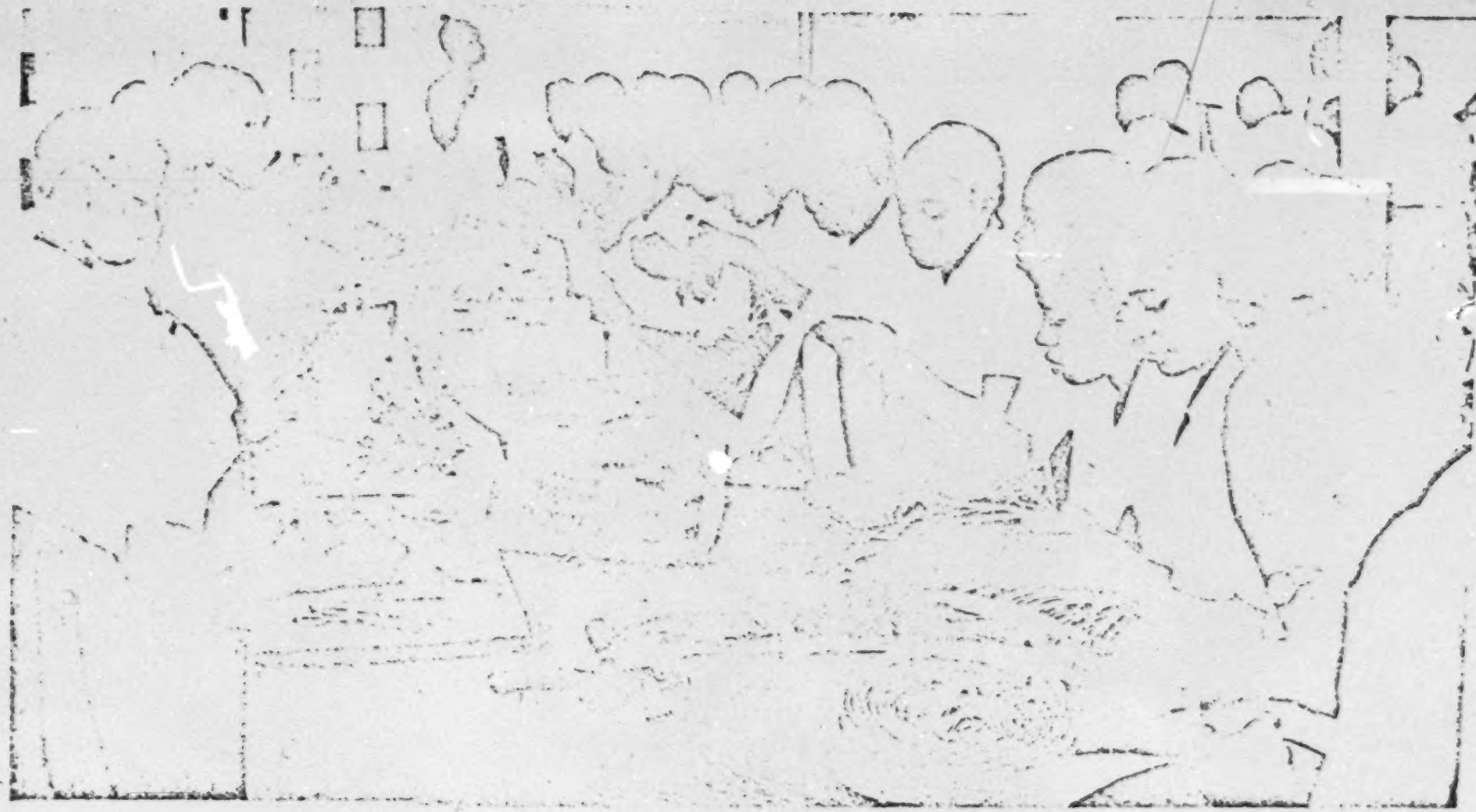
Most schools have reacted to the President's call on self-reliance by establishing potential projects in their schools. The most common project to all schools with ample land is vegetable, food crop and cash crop growing. Food crops are partly used by pupils for their midday meals and the surplus is sold and the money is used to buy food supplements such as sugar and salt; and to buy sports equipment as well as teaching aid materials. In addition to growing food crops and vegetables, schools keep domestic animals such as cows, goats and pigs. Schools in the urban areas where there is scarcity of land engage in poultry keeping and metalwork, woodwork, and other handwork activities. A good example is the Kisuta Girls Secondary School in the city of Dar-es-Salaam - see picture page 49 and Tandika Primary School, Dar-es-Salaam.

3. *A homecraft teacher at Tandika Primary School, Dar es Salaam is teaching needle work.*

The following table shows the acreage cultivated in 1974 and the number of various livestock raised. It also shows the comparative revenues for 1973 and 1974. The activities (projects) were done by both primary and secondary school students. The figures for primary schools only could not be available. In two years the schools realised a total amount of Shs. 7,669,581.03 which is equivalent to $1,095,654.45.

TABLE 5: Comparative Revenue for 1973 and 1974 on Education for Self-Reliance Activities

Region	No. of Schools	Revenue in Shilling 1973	1974	Acreage Cultiv.	Cows	Pigs	Poultry	Goats	Sheep
Arusha	262	145,281.00	294,210.85	-	8	-	600	2	-
Dar-es-Salaam	96	-	40,315.45	68	-	-	1,491	25	-
Dodoma	312	138,070.55	177,706.75	552	67	22	1,711	59	5
Iringa	276	153,939.05	263,819.55	484.5	51	29	265	43	49
Kigoma	186	43,634.10	104,163.30	265.9	-	-	198	4	-
Kilimanjaro	464	262,015.20	537,881.65	629.0	42	200	1,471	20	41
Lindi	190	85,484.30	226,656.60	324	31	102	607	14	-
Mara	200	128,467.90	208,554.50	406	14	6	700	120	23
Mbeya	253	263,597.60	354,202.14	1056.3	-	30	772	25	-
Morogoro	345	193,113.40	253,337.75	1195.1	30	51	475	-	-
Mtwara	299	132,142.45	168,388.00	803.5	8	-	192	2	9
Mwanza	401	234,802.20	447,902.40	902	11	10	1,672	80	-
Pwani	184	117,729.10	155,162.25	373.4	5	-	779	80	-
Rukwa	129	-	71,259.00	237.5	-	-	-	-	-
Ruvuma	226	143,872.50	285,983.45	813	-	29	297	-	12
Shinyanga	174	177,415.65	203,718.32	396.5	8	-	38	6	-
Singida	231	145,029.20	123,545.05	326	-	-	-	-	-
Tabora	236	115,324.95	206,120.02	440.5	89	16	928	14	2
Tanga	396	219,051.25	311,952.70	510	5	115	4,548	34	-
West Lake	350	246,450.50	290,090.50	800	63	40	812	26	-
Total	5,210	2,945,420.80	4,724,160.23	1,0583.2	432	650	17,556	554	141



EDUCATION for self-reliance activities have started to pay off at the Kisutu Girl's Secondary School in Dar es Salaam. The students, some of of whom are pictured here at work, have in eight months earned 1,630/- from tailoring activities, 2,500/- from toy making and 4,900/- from poultry. They have a 400/- weekly income from the sale of buns.

Education for Self-Reliance suggests that classroom work and extra-curricular activities should be linked through a transformation in learning and teaching methods that emphasize experimentation and actual teaching. For this reason the primary school curriculum has been tuned to the needs and realities of rural life. In the rural areas school activities are integrated with village activities permitting children to participate and feel that they are part and parcel of the village.

One school called Kwamsisi in Korogwe district, for example, is one of the three primary schools which are under Pilot Projects that receive financial aid from UNESCO. In Kwamsisi School, teachers plan their schemes of work bearing in mind the time children should spend working in the village - weeding, manuring and harvesting. Local artisans are invited to teach their trades such as black-smithery, wood carving, mat plaiting, pottery, basket and carpet making. Experimentation of more advanced integration in educational system is being carried out in Dodoma region where eight community schools have been built in the rural areas. They are at an embryo stage so it is not easy now to say what is going on, but it is expected that their activities will be even more than those at Kwamsisi.

The Ministry of Education has worked out ways of evaluating and examining children's attainment, based on Education for Self-Reliance participation, contribution and attitudes toward manual work.

3. Problems Faced in the Implementation of Education for Self-Reliance

In the early years of implementation of education for self-reliance some parents were skeptic about the education that their children were receiving. Infact, they were comparing this education with that which was being offered in colonial time. They wanted their children to be given book knowledge so that they might pass their examinations and get to high schools or get employed. Such parents even dared to influence their children to avoid participating in activities such as sports, cultural dances and many others they thought were non-educational. However, politicization and education tended to be a cure for their speculations. The change in examination system which takes into account the child's day-to-day activities including his/her participation in education for self-reliance, plays an important role in changing the parents' attitudes.

Many teachers and politicians as well as education administrators, had a misconception for the philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance. They hurriedly took it for granted that it meant engaging pupils in agricultural or any other money raising activities. By the help of frequent seminars and circulars, they all came to realize that Education for Self-Reliance meant more than manual work. In some schools produce were being sold without the knowledge of the pupils. This frustrated many pupils and in some cases they developed negative attitudes toward self-reliance

projects. This was corrected by the formation of pupils' education for self-reliance committees under one or two teachers in each school. Under this system children made their own decisions on the use of the harvest and the money obtained. Their increased positive attitude toward manual work helped to encourage more meaningful methods of dealing with education for self-reliance activities by the authority. There are now indications that the education provided by Tanzania for the students of Tanzania serves the purposes of Tanzania. It encourages the development of the socialist values we aspire to. It encourages the development of a proud, independent, and free citizenry which relies upon itself for its own development, and which knows the advantages and the problems of co-operation. The educated citizens know themselves that they are an integral part of the nation and recognize that their responsibility is to give greater service required.

PART FOUR: UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. Overview

In Tanzania when we speak of "Universal Primary Education" we normally mean that "every child who reaches the school age - usually it is 7 years, should go to school." It is necessary that all children stay in school up to the end of primary education which, for us, is Standard VII; because for us in Tanzania, primary education is not seen as primarily being a preparation for the secondary school like in other countries such as Canada. Rather, it is viewed as a self-contained course with its own organization and its own aims and objectives.

In the Second Five Year Development Plan 1964-1969, it was proposed to effect progressive increase in Standard I enrolments towards Universal Primary Education, taking into consideration not only population growth, but also to increase the relative percentage of the primary age group from which primary education could be provided from rather less than 50 percent in 1969 to Universal Primary Education in 1989.

The nation felt that 1989 was too far. It suggested 1984, but this was also felt to be too far if we want to enhance development, especially in the village in which the majority of Tanzanians live. Therefore, at its November 1974 meeting, the TANU (then the sole ruling party), National

Executive directed that in the three years to come (November 1974 - November 1977), plans should be made to enable implementation of Primary Universal Education in November, 1977, instead of 1984. In turn the Tanzania Cabinet Economic Committee directed that the Ministry of National Education should work out its implementation plans bearing in mind the following:

(a) Classrooms and teachers' houses,

(b) Ways of getting teachers,

(c) School equipment and furniture,

(d) Expansion of technical primary schools.

Implementation of Directive

The TANU National Executive Directive of 1974 was viewed as an historical one. Politicians were quick to act, some even acted a week after the meeting. The first thing these politicians did was to educate the people, what the directive meant and the anticipated problems such as lack of classrooms, teachers and school materials.

Up to 1975 only 55 percent of the Tanzania school age children were in school. Due to population growth estimated at 3 percent, 1975-80 and 3.3 percent from 1980-85, it was decided to start implementing the directive immediately. In February, 1975, many new Standard Is were opened at the existing schools or in community centres and other buildings donated, provided that education was being offered. This step was taken because there were many children whose ages were between 9 and 12, and if these were not considered first

they would have to be considered for adult education classes.

Even before the Ministry gave its plans, people, through the initiative of their local politicians, started to register children and build very temporary classrooms with the materials they could obtain locally. They wanted to be Self-Reliant. This is what Tanzania could do to wage war against ignorance. It is hard to believe, but we did it and we shall do it in future if we do not get sufficient funds to achieve our aim.

In August, 1975, the Ministry of National Education issued a comprehensive directive on the early stages of implementing Universal Primary Education before 1977. This was sparked by the initiative of the local people. (Ministry's Ref. No. EDP. P1/171/7 of 21/8/75).

(a) Age Limit

Twelve years was considered to be the maximum age limit for entry into Standard I in this programme. This meant that when enrolling Standard I pupils, teachers had to consider first those children who were twelve years old, then those eleven years old, ten years old, until the class was full, normally 45 children. As a result of this system, it is expected that by November 1977, the majority of the new Standard I pupils will be seven years old and few eight years old.

TABLE 6: Number of Primary School Children 1974/75 - 1980/81

Year	Std. I	Std. II	Std. III	Std. IV	Std. V	Std. VI	Std. VII	Total
1974/75	473,067	232,395	212,416	187,258	165,253	152,426	137,965	1,560,780
1975/76	829,993	449,969	242,726	210,244	185,384	163,328	150,013	2,231,657
1976/77	848,293	821,723	445,467	213,718	207,989	183,520	162,018	2,882,728
1977/78	867,793	839,821	813,607	416,669	237,895	204,912	179,417	3,560,114
1978/79	491,000	859,108	831,422	805,119	436,402	235,522	203,852	3,862,425
1979/80	506,325	486,236	850,516	823,108	797,438	432,037	222,259	4,117,919
1980/81	521,315	501,260	481,374	842,061	814,827	789,462	417,725	4,368,024

The above Table reveals that between November 1976 and November 1977, there will be an increase of 19,500 children above normal intake. These will need 389 extra classrooms at the cost of about 3,880,000/=, leave alone the cost for expansion.

The enrolment figures for 1974/75 and 1975/76 differ because in 1974/75 there was a normal intake while due to the initial implementation of Universal Primary Education in February, 1975, the intake shot to 829,993. The 1978/79 intake is expected to drop because in this second year of UPE, it is expected that the number of children above school age would have been offered places in school in 1977/78.

The nation has decided to achieve Universal Primary Education by 1977, so under any cost it has to be launched. We believe that the degree of knowledge we have gained on Self-Reliance in the last decade enables us to forge ahead in self reliance activities such as building classrooms and teachers' houses. The steps taken in the initial stages of this programme will be followed in this second phase.

According to the above cited ministerial directive, each region plans its own programme in the construction of classrooms and teachers' houses. In the first two to three years of implementation a large number of classrooms will be needed, but in the subsequent years the number of school age children will be seven, since the older children would have been absorbed. This means that it will not be necessary in the beginning to build permanent classrooms which will not

be used in future. It is suggested that only semi-permanent or temporary buildings should be erected.

2. School Equipment

At present the nation faces an acute shortage of school materials and equipment, and it is most likely that this situation will be even worse in November, 1977. However, some regions are far ahead in preparation to solve this problem. Mara region, for example, is using slates made from local materials. Neighbouring regions have been advised to use these writing materials in Standards I and II. Other regions use different local materials, that is, they mostly depend on millboards which are made in Tanga region. While working under these difficult conditions, plans are well ahead to manufacture exercise books and other materials locally.

On furniture, especially desks, teachers have been advised to make their own using local trees. It is felt that this will be even better than having children sit on a bare floor. This is only a temporary measure, until such time when the nation is able to provide proper learning facilities to all schools.

3. Teachers

One of the most serious problems in this programme is the question of teachers. Since this is a state of emergency, the question of trained teachers for the additional classes is unimportant.

To meet the expected great demand of teachers, it has been necessary to open more Grade C teacher training colleges for students who completed Standard VII. Their training is just as good as that offered in other Colleges of National Education. There are plans to open more colleges when funds are available. Because it will take two years to utilize the services of these teachers, in the initial stage it was necessary to take ex-Standard VII students to teach in primary schools.

These students are selected by individual wards in collaboration with the Party Youth League Officials, to work on a voluntary basis until the government is able to pay them allowances. These young inexperienced teachers are expected to get professional guidance from the serving teachers at their respective schools, and from education officers during weekend courses. Since most of them are working with the hope that one day they will be considered for teacher training courses, they display their ability and zeal in their work.

Another way of helping these young teachers is to give them residential training. At least in each region there is a College of National Education. For this reason it has been suggested that local arrangements should be made to give these teachers short training courses using the comprehensive syllabus issued by the Ministry under the cover of its EDTT. S/1/42 of may 14, 1975. Under this plan the volunteers are expected to teach in Standards III and IV so that the experienced teachers handle Standard I classes at either the

existing schools or at the newly opened schools. This plan will change the policy of education, of offering full day schooling in Standards III and IV. Now these classes, and in some cases even Standards V-VII, will have to convert to half-day school system.

Using Secondary School Students

It is planned that to make Universal Primary Education a success under all these difficulties, pupils of forms 3 and 4 of all secondary schools should be given lessons on educational psychology so that they are involved in teaching in primary schools near their schools at certain times of the day as may be found convenient, provided that this does not interfere with their normal learning.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The educational background given in the first part of this paper only serves to help readers know what happened in Tanzania before independence. It is from this background that one realizes why it was necessary for the Tanzanians to fight for their independence, which was attained without bloodshed.

The post-independence educational development is the result of both the First and Second Five Year Development Plans, July 1964-June 1969 and July 1969-June 1974, respectively; and the philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance.

The achievements attained in meeting the First Five Year Development Plan targets were great. The conversion of Primary I-IV schools into Primary I-VII schools, was completed as planned. However, due to limitations of funds the elimination of half-day attendance in Standards III and IV, which involved building third classrooms and posting third teachers could not be completed as planned.

By 1967 third classrooms had already been opened at 160 primary schools and by the end of that school year, the elimination had been completed in 75 percent of all government primary schools. Although in this Development Plan much emphasis was on secondary school expansion, the nation was

able to open more new Standard I through the normal expansion thus increasing the national percentage of the school enrolment age children. There were 121,386 Standard I children in 1961 as against 157,196 Standard I children in 1967 (Ministry's Annual Report, 1967, p. 57, Table A17), an increase of 35,810 children in six years.

The colonial system of education encouraged racial, religious denomination, and private primary schools. This created a great barrier to progess. The government had very few schools so in those rural areas where certain religious denomination had monopoly, only those children who belonged to that denomination were considered first for places in school. Moslems, for example, who had no schools of their own were in most cases denied places in those schools. In the late sixties, all primary schools belonged to the government. The barrier that once existed was therefore removed and children could go to any school they wished.

In the early years of independence, primary school fees were still being charged. For this reason poor parents could not send their children to school, nor could these children get free education. Only a very few lucky children from poor homes were excepted from school fees. In 1973, primary school fees were abolished but education was not made compulsory, instead there was enacted "a compulsory primary school attendance order," which is still in force. This order states that any child who is admitted into school must attend and must do so until he completes primary

education. This order helps to keep many pupils at school.

We in Tanzania are poor, and we are one of the twenty-five poor countries in the world. We have, however, with what little we have, managed to offer free education from primary through university level. This has enabled us to make a big stride in our educational targets. There are now 1,624,084 pupils attending primary school compared to 468,470 pupils in 1961 when we got independence, an increase of 137,614 pupils. This November we are going Universal Primary Education in Tanzania.

We know that we are faced with the problem of lack of the necessary finance to meet the cost of building classrooms, training and employing more teachers, and buying more school materials. We believe that such problems can be solved by increasing economic production, especially in schools which have already gone Self-Reliant, and the community at large, especially now when schools are community schools.

The role of Adult Education in changing the attitudes and living habits of the parents will give its due urgency so that we may not continue to be faced with the problem of poor enrolment and school drop-outs.

This time we propose to take into consideration the worthwhileness of our education as a whole for we would not like to find ourselves educating all our children for nothing. What we are really interested in is to give them a kind of functional education that will place them well in the processes

of production and distribution. We want to make a cultural, social and economic revolution through education and to that effect we cannot escape the obligation to observe the proper disciplines of knowledge that will help develop in our youths self-confidence with regard to problem-solving and mission to society.

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